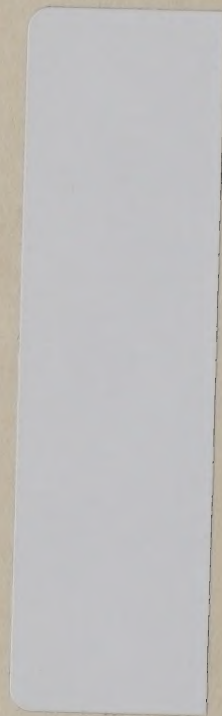


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A BRIEF HISTORY *of* INDIANA

By
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HOWARD H. PECKHAM

Indianapolis
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A BRIEF HISTORY OF INDIANA

I. EUROPEAN COLONY, 1679-1783

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First Inhabitants

Here and there along Indiana watercourses are found objects of Indian fabrication which reveal that the first inhabitants of the state were dwelling here centuries before the first white man appeared. The earliest Indians lived mainly on shellfish as shown by the shell mounds they left. They used spears for hunting, made beads but not pottery; and lived in flimsy shelters for short periods before moving on in search of more food. Other and later mounds reveal that a more settled people inhabited Indiana over a thousand years ago. They raised much of their food, made cloth, nets, sandals, and ornaments, and buried their dead with care. In southwestern Indiana about four hundred years ago dwelt some agricultural Indians who lived in houses formed of upright posts, cane lath covered with straw and mud, and grass roofs, and who even fortified their village. They made pottery utensils, flint knives, stone hammers, copper ornaments, and bows and arrows.

In the early seventeenth century the northern part of the state was invaded by a new group of warlike, hunting Indians. They caused the farming Indians on the Ohio River to go back to their homeland in the Southeast. The newcomers, with an inferior culture, found that the streams, lakes, and swamps of northern Indiana supplied game and fish in abundance, the river systems provided highways for their canoes, and the patches of prairie could be gardened by the squaws. These were the red men found by the first white explorers in the late seventeenth century. They belonged to the Algonquian language family.

The French Arrive

The Spanish were the pioneers in the exploration and colonization of the New World, but shortly after its discovery by Columbus in 1492 came the first meager efforts of the English and French. John

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Cabot, sailing for England, discovered the Labrador region in 1497 and established England's claim to North America. An early French expedition, under Verrazano, sailed along the Atlantic coast in 1524 searching for a passage to the Orient. A decade later Cartier made the first of three voyages up the St. Lawrence River and attempted a colony, but without success.

The fur trade with the Indians lured the French into the interior and became the economic foundation of New France. Champlain founded Quebec in 1608 and explored westward to Lake Huron. Trader Jolliet and Father Marquette reached the Mississippi and descended it part way in 1673. Fur traders and missionaries fanned out through the country surrounding the Great Lakes. The Jesuit missionaries in particular labored amid sacrifice and martyrdom to convert the Indians to Christianity, while traders exchanged the white man's goods with the Indians for fur pelts. By 1720 the French had control of the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes region, and the Mississippi from Illinois to the Gulf of Mexico. Indiana lay astride the continental divide, part in the Province of Canada and part in Louisiana.

French Settlement

The French established three posts in Indiana to guard the Maumee-Wabash route connecting Lake Erie with the Ohio River. They were principally posts where traders could live, keep their supplies, barter with the Indians, and pack their furs for shipment either to Montreal or New Orleans. Since the French government obtained revenue from the fur trade, and wished to protect the waterways of communication, it usually kept troops at these posts. A fort was established at the portage from the Maumee to the Little Wabash, where Fort Wayne now stands, possibly in 1714. It came to be known as the Fort of the Miamis, or Fort Miamis. Another settlement was made among the Wea, or Ouiatenon, and a stockade with block-houses was built about 1719 a few miles below the present city of Lafayette. It was called Fort Ouiatenon. Fort Vincennes, established by Sieur de Vincennes probably in 1731, was the largest and most thriving post and has grown into the city we know today. Because trade was more easily established with the Illinois settlements and New Orleans, Vincennes was administered as part of the Province of Louisiana; the other two forts were part of Canada.

In exchange for hides and furs, the Indians received gunpowder, muskets, lead bullets, traps, kettles, blankets, knives, shirts, paint, beads,

mirrors, jew's harps, and other trinkets. French brandy became an increasing part of this trade, to the detriment of the Indian's physical and social life. The traders raised some corn, wheat, tobacco, a few fruits and vegetables, but did not clear and farm the land. The Indians did not object to a few Frenchmen here and there, since such small settlements did not deplete or scare off the game which the Indians hunted. Indeed, the traders brought them articles which raised the savage standard of living, and the French government made them frequent presents to keep their friendship. Sometimes the traders went out among the tribes and did their trading on the hunting grounds. In the spring they transported their furs to Montreal or New Orleans and procured more trade goods. They frequently married Indian maidens and reared half-breed children. Lonely evenings were broken by dancing, card playing and sports. The game of lacrosse was learned from the Indians. The military commandant was also the civil ruler. The French were Catholic, and the priest was a central figure in their daily life. We are less indebted to the French, however, than to the Indians for our way of living.

Colonial Wars

France and England came to be the principal rivals in colonizing North America because the French settlements prevented the westward expansion of the English colonies from the Atlantic Coast. Both countries wanted the furs and other raw materials which America produced, and each struggled to draw the Indians against the other. The religion of the two powers also differed. The first colonial war for empire between the mother countries began in 1689; the fourth and last started in 1754. It was called the French and Indian War, and it ended early in 1763 with a conclusive English victory. France lost Canada and her territory east of the Mississippi to England, and gave her land west of the Mississippi to Spain for the latter's unavailing help in the war. The outcome determined that Indiana was to be finally settled not by Frenchmen, but by Englishmen, or at least their American cousins. In turn this meant that English law and government, as well as Protestantism, would prevail. Many of the French inhabitants, never anchored to the land, moved to the west side of the Mississippi. In 1765 the first British official to visit the Indiana posts found Vincennes to be a village of eighty or ninety French families, Ouiatenon with only about fourteen families, and Fort Miamis with even fewer.

Pontiac's War

British occupation of Indiana was neither long nor effective. Garrison troops were sent to occupy Forts Miamis and Ouiatenon late in 1760. Vincennes did not have a British commandant for eighteen years. The Indians of Indiana had been allied with the French in the late war and they disliked the English, especially for their stinginess in giving presents, their hunger for land, their high prices, and their superior attitude. Under the leadership of Chief Pontiac, the tribes around Detroit laid siege to that fort in May, 1763, in the hope of expelling the English from the Northwest and restoring the French. Pontiac dispatched a savage party to Fort Miamis which killed the commandant by ruse and captured the post. The party proceeded down the river to Ouiatenon and siezed that fort. Although the Indians obtained possession of nine western posts, their objective was impossible and they had to give up the warfare by winter. The English re-established their authority the next year, but did not attempt to station troops in Indiana again until the Revolution.

An English Wilderness

The absorption of Canada and the Indian uprisings showed the British government that new policies were needed to deal with the French and Indians of British America. To pacify the savages, white settlement west of the Appalachian mountains was forbidden by the royal Proclamation of 1763. The decree offended land speculators as well as squatters on the land and could not be enforced. Moreover, about half of the original English colonies held charters granting them boundaries from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Virginia claimed a large part of Indiana. The line of white settlement was moved to the Ohio River as far down as the mouth of the Tennessee in 1768, but still excluding Indiana from English settlement.

In 1774 the British parliament passed the Quebec Act, annexing the area north of the Ohio to the province of Quebec in order to establish firm control over settlement and fur trade. French laws and religion were safeguarded. The resulting dominance of French law and Catholicism was generally resented by the Protestant English colonists, who had expected to extend their influence westward.

The limitation on westward expansion and the Quebec Act were two of the many causes of the American Revolution.

Clark and Western Warfare

When the Revolution began there were no English settlements in Indiana. The meager French population was generally neutral until France allied herself with the United States in 1778.

Early in the war bands of British and Indians frequently raided the Kentucky outposts and the frontier settlements. The Americans were left largely to their own resources for defense. Some fled eastward, others stayed. During this turbulent time George Rogers Clark, then in his early twenties, achieved political and military prominence in the West by leading resistance to the Indians and stiffening the morale of the settlers. He had helped organize Kentucky as a county of Virginia. From Governor Patrick Henry, Clark secured the promise of both men and materials in order to take the offensive in the West, but was disappointed in the amount of help received.

In 1778 Clark's expedition descended the Ohio to the mouth of the Tennessee River, then crossed the Illinois prairies. The troops captured Kaskaskia in July without the loss of a single life. Clark's generous, though firm, treatment of the French and the news of the recently concluded French alliance with the United States strengthened his position. Urged by Father Gibault and Dr. Jean Laffont, the French at Vincennes took the oath of loyalty to the Americans without firing a shot. Clark sent an officer and one soldier to supervise them.

When the British commandant at Detroit, Colonel Henry Hamilton, learned of Clark's success, he collected British and Indian allies to oppose him. Advancing up the Maumee and down the Wabash, he took possession of Vincennes without difficulty. Winter had set in, but Clark determined to march against Vincennes. With about 170 men he set out in February, 1779, from Kaskaskia. Cold, snow, mud, high water, exposure, sickness, and lack of food failed to stop these sons of the wilderness. They surprised the British troops, recaptured Vincennes, and sent Hamilton off to Virginia a prisoner of war.

Because Kaskaskia and Vincennes remained in American hands at the end of the war, the American peace commissioners were encouraged to ask in 1782 for the Mississippi River and the Great Lakes as boundaries of the United States.

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II. TERRITORIAL DAYS, 1783-1816

British Influence

Between 1783 and 1816 it was uncertain whether the United States would be able to make good its title to all land east of the Mississippi River, between Canada and Florida. Virtually no Americans, except solitary fur traders, ventured north of the Ohio for the first few years. Until 1796 British troops were garrisoned at Niagara, Detroit, and Mackinac on the American side of the Great Lakes. Until the end of the War of 1812, British influence was a potent factor in stiffening the resistance of the Indians to the advancing American settlements. British policy was determined mainly by a desire to protect their lucrative fur trade, the economic base of this region since the arrival of the French.

Peace between the British and Americans in 1783 caught the Indians by surprise and amazed tribal leaders. What right had the British to give lands of the Indians to the Americans? The red men had not agreed to cession of the land nor to the end of warfare and were angrily insisting upon the Ohio River as the approximate boundary between themselves and the American frontiersmen. They feared occupation by American farmers, which would drive out the game, more than the scattered posts of British or French fur traders.

Indian Relations, 1783-1795

Between the Ohio River and the Lakes lived numerous Indian tribes, notably the Miami, Potawatomi, Delaware, Shawnee, Wea, Kickapoo, Piankashaw, and Wyandot or Huron. It is estimated that there were about 5,000 warriors, or 20,000 Indians, in Indiana after the Revolution. This Indian population was most numerous in the northern third of the state, in the upper Wabash and Maumee valleys.

Late in the 1780's Chief Little Turtle and his powerful Miami tribe succeeded in drawing the tribes together to resist the white advance. American settlements along the Ohio River were raided. In 1790, General Josiah Harmar was sent against the Indians only to have a detachment defeated on the banks of the Maumee within the present city of Fort Wayne. Next year Arthur St. Clair, Revolutionary general and governor of the Northwest Territory, was routed in camp,

near the present Ohio-Indiana boundary east of Portland. Little Turtle was active in both Indian victories. General Charles Scott, of Kentucky, was more successful in his attack on the Wea and Kickapoo villages surrounding old Fort Ouiatenon. He burned the towns and destroyed the fort in June, 1791. Immediately following this stroke, General James Wilkinson led an expedition against the Miami village on the Eel River, near the modern city of Logansport. He destroyed the town, and the Indians were killed or scattered.

Angered at St. Clair's failure, President Washington appointed Anthony Wayne to fight not only the Indians, but, if necessary, their British allies. While Wayne collected and drilled his troops, the Indians were urged to make peace, and Little Turtle argued in vain against further resistance. Wayne advanced northward and in the summer of 1794 broke the Indian power at the Battle of Fallen Timbers on the Maumee. The British dared not give military aid to their red allies and prepared to surrender the posts they held illegally. Wayne built a fort, named Fort Wayne, at the old French post on the headwaters of the Maumee, and the next year he made peace with the Indians at Greenville, Ohio.

The Treaty of Greenville cleared the greater part of Ohio and a slice of southeastern Indiana of the Indian title. For about fifteen years relations between the Indians and whites were generally peaceful. This ebbing of Indian warfare encouraged a larger flow of population into the Ohio Valley, some of the immigrants penetrating southern Indiana.

Land Problem and Policy

Virginia's claim to the Northwest was strengthened by her financial support of George Rogers Clark's expedition against Kaskaskia and Vincennes in 1778-1779, and she promised Clark and his troops 150,000 acres of land northwest of the Ohio as a bonus. Land around modern Clarksville was taken up, starting in 1784, and became not only the first authorized American settlement in Indiana, but the first in the Northwest Territory.

During the 1780's Virginia and the other states wisely surrendered their claims to western lands to Congress. The Congress evolved a process of four steps by which the land of the Indians was to become the land of the American settlers. Sale of land by the Indians to the Federal Government was the first requirement—a recognition of Indian title to the land and a prohibition of private purchases in which Indians

might be cheated. Next came survey of the land by the government, with sale of tracts at public auction as the third step. Settlement by the purchasers, or by those who rented or bought from the purchasers, was the final step. Actually, a different practice was often followed. "Squatters" simply moved in and settled in the wilderness, without buying or obtaining title to the property. Such illegal occupation strained Indian relations, yet often had to be recognized by special enactment of Congress because it was protected by local custom.

The Land Ordinance of 1785, providing for the survey of a small area in eastern Ohio, established the method of survey used subsequently in nearly all of the public domain, including Indiana. Land was marked off in congressional townships, six miles square, with each township comprising 36 mile-square sections of 640 acres. Each sixteenth section was reserved to the future inhabitants of the township for the support of common schools. No purchase could be made for less than 640 acres, nor for less than \$1.00 per acre in cash. (Congress was in debt and short of means of obtaining revenue, hence was seeking to make the public domain a source of revenue to pay off the federal debt.) But these minimum terms involved more money than most prospective settlers could pay, and more land than they could use.

Congress was able to sell some large tracts to companies organized by land speculators. In 1787 the Ohio Land Company bought land in southeastern Ohio, paying principally with claims against Congress, and founded Marietta in 1788. A few other companies and wealthy individuals bought large tracts and resold smaller units to settlers. In 1800 William Henry Harrison helped secure another land law which made some concessions to western settlers. Although the minimum price was increased to \$2.00 per acre, the minimum purchase was reduced to 320 acres and payment was permitted in installments. An 1804 law reduced the minimum unit to 160 acres and opened a land office at Vincennes. As the population of the United States moved westward, the land policy of the government grew more lenient and flexible.

Government of the Northwest Territory

George Rogers Clark had left an officer in command at Vincennes who maintained a rough kind of order without supervision or support from Virginia. Major John F. Hamtramck was sent to command at Vincennes in 1787. The surrender of state land claims and the influx of settlers into the upper Ohio Valley made it incumbent on Congress

to organize a civil government for the Northwest Territory. It adopted the Northwest Ordinance in 1787. This law made the territory northwest of the Ohio River a unit for civil government and described the process by which states could be formed out of it and admitted to the Union. Eventually the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota were carved out of this territory.

At first the territory was ruled by a governor, three judges, and a secretary, selected by Congress without consulting the inhabitants. This nonrepresentative system was a temporary expedient until there should be 5,000 freemen in the territory. Then a bicameral assembly was to be added. The lower house was elected; the upper house was appointed by the President from persons nominated by the lower house. The assembly elected a delegate to Congress. High property qualifications were required of both voters and officeholders. Territorial government was to guarantee freedom of speech, press and religion, prohibit slavery, encourage schools, and treat the Indians fairly. When a population of 60,000 was reached, the region was entitled to the final step of adopting a constitution and joining the Union as a state.

Indiana Territory

In 1798 Governor Arthur St. Clair proclaimed the Northwest Territory to be of the second or representative level. In 1800 the Ohio region was nearly ready for statehood, and the remainder of the Northwest Territory was separated from it as Indiana Territory and reverted to the first stage of government. Vincennes was made the capital. The whole of Indiana Territory contained only 5,650 people, a majority of whom were French.

William Henry Harrison, first governor of the territory, did not arrive in Vincennes until early in 1801. He had been secretary of the Northwest Territory and then its first delegate to Congress. Harrison was governor of Indiana Territory until late in 1812 when he resigned to carry on military duties in the War of 1812. Subsequently his political career led to the Presidency, but he died after only one month in office.

The governor was the most powerful official in the territory, making nearly all appointments to local offices and to the militia. He also superintended Indian affairs. During the first stage of territorial government (1800-1804) he and the three judges constituted the legislature

and adopted laws to govern Indiana Territory. Together the judges served as the highest court of appeal within the territory.

The French seem to have preferred this nonrepresentative level of government, and the vastness of the area and sparseness of population made it desirable. An 1804 referendum, however, revealed a majority of the voting freeholders in favor of advancing to the representative stage, and late in the year the governor proclaimed its adoption.

When the Ordinance of 1787 was framed, voting and officeholding were extended only to those who met certain property qualifications. The leaven of democracy worked rapidly in the western wilderness, and during Indiana Territory's second stage of government Congress evolved the equivalent of universal suffrage for white males and made the territorial delegate subject to popular election. An 1802 convention at Vincennes petitioned Congress to allow slavery in Indiana Territory, but the petition was not granted. Next year the governor and judges adopted a Virginia law which permitted the substance of slavery by legalizing life contracts between blacks and whites. The law was repealed in 1810, at which time the census reported about 250 slaves in the territory. Slavery never became an established institution in Indiana, although it had existed among the French before the coming of the Americans.

Tippecanoe and the War of 1812

Governor Harrison conducted a succession of treaties between 1801 and 1809 by which the Indians ceded their claims to approximately the southern third of the present states of Indiana and Illinois. These cessions brought encroachments by white settlers which threatened the Indians' continued existence in Indiana, and they organized to defend their remaining land. There were no further cessions until after the War of 1812. Resistance was encouraged by the British in Canada and by a new generation of warriors.

The Prophet and Tecumseh, Shawnee brothers, were leaders in organizing opposition to the whites. The Prophet preached rejection of white influences and a return to the old way of life. Tecumseh seems to have aimed at a close military organization of the Indians north and south of the Ohio. He was a man of ability who won the respect of many of his white enemies, while the Prophet was a conspirator of doubtful virtue. In 1810 and again in 1811, Tecumseh met with Harrison

at Vincennes and denounced the cesssions of land, especially the last one, made at Fort Wayne in 1809.

While Tecumseh was among the Indians south of the Ohio in the fall of 1811, Harrison marched up the Wabash toward the Prophet's town with a force of nearly 1,000 men. At Terre Haute, Fort Harrison was erected. The army proceeded northward and encountered the Indians along the Tippecanoe River a few miles above the present city of Lafayette. The Indians asked a council for the following day, but early in the November dawn they attacked. Harrison's troops suffered heavy casualties, with the loss of about 60 men killed and 125 wounded. The Indians losses were also heavy. Neither side won a decisive victory, but the Indians withdrew. The conflict merged into the War of 1812.

The area now forming the state of Indiana suffered more in the War of 1812 than in any previous war. The American advance into Canada quickly backfired, and the British and Indians captured Detroit and massacred the garrison at Fort Dearborn (Chicago). Indian raids penetrated even into Kentucky. American garrisons at Fort Harrison and Fort Wayne were besieged but not captured by the Indians. On December 17, 1812, Colonel Campbell attacked the Miami villages on the Mississinewa River (north of modern Marion) and destroyed them, because most of the Miamis had sided with the British. In the fall of 1812 a band of Indians swept down on the settlement at Pigeon Roost in Scott County and massacred about twenty inhabitants, mostly women and children. Individual settlers were killed and horses stolen for years afterward.

The treaty ending the war had important consequences for the Old Northwest, although there was no change in the boundary between Canada and the United States. Tecumseh had died fighting with the British. The Indians were defeated and ready for peace again; and there were no more Indian wars in Indiana. The war so reduced British influence in the Northwest that it ceased to be a menace. American occupation of the whole region was hastened. Indiana and Illinois were ripe for statehood.

Early Settlers and Settlements

Nearly all the immigrants to territorial Indiana were native-born Americans. About half came from the South (North Carolina, Maryland, Virginia, Tennessee, and Kentucky) and almost as many from

Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York. The small remainder came from New England and Europe. Practically all of them settled in southern Indiana close to the Ohio River, with tongues of settlement running northward up the Whitewater and Wabash valleys. Many early settlers were squatters. The population was preponderantly rural, yet such towns as Clarksville, New Albany, Jeffersonville, Madison, Vevay, Charlestown, Brookville, Lawrenceburg, Corydon, Spencer, Salem, Harmony, Princeton, and Richmond had been established by the end of 1816. Fort Wayne was a military post in the northeast, and Vincennes was the capital until 1813, when after much agitation the capital was moved to Corydon, near the center of population.

A Swiss colony settled at Vevay, where vineyards were planted. Simple German peasants who had a common religious faith and led a communal life came from Pennsylvania to the Wabash in 1815 and settled Harmony. Under the leadership of George Rapp they labored hard and prospered for a decade.

By 1810, despite the detachment of Michigan and Illinois as separate territories, the population of Indiana Territory had jumped to 25,000. Five years later, despite the war, it stood close to 64,000, more than enough for statehood. At the end of the territorial period there were fifteen counties in Indiana: eight on the Ohio (Dearborn, Switzerland, Jefferson, Clark, Harrison, Perry, Warrick, Posey); two up the Whitewater (Franklin and Wayne); two more up the Wabash (Gibson and Knox); and three on the East Fork of White River (Orange, Washington, and Jackson). Rivers were important highways of transportation and travel, and most exports floated down the Ohio and Lower Mississippi to New Orleans on flatboats.

(The early Hoosiers were excellent pioneers. In southern Indiana they cleared the forests, fought the Indians and diseases, founded schools, churches, and towns, and otherwise established a civilization; while central and especially northern Indiana were yet almost entirely under the sway of the aborigines. They wrested a living from the soil and plied their trades. Several of the larger fortunes of pioneer Indiana were derived from trade with the Indians. Unfortunately, the liquor traffic and land speculation frequently merged with this trade, and the corruption and cheating of the Indians which followed leave a stain on this chapter of our early history.

Indiana Enters the Union, 1816

Prior to 1816 only five states had been admitted to the Union (Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, and Louisiana). Indiana became the nineteenth state in the country and was followed during the next five years by Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, Missouri. In 1811 the Indiana Assembly had petitioned Congress for statehood, but the response was not favorable. Jonathan Jennings, territorial delegate since 1809, was the leader in the statehood movement and Harrison's successor as the central political figure in the territory. A second memorial for statehood resulted in congressional adoption of an enabling act in April, 1816, which called for a constitutional convention at Corydon in June following.

The Corydon convention framed an excellent constitution that drew heavily upon the practice and experience of neighboring states and the federal Constitution. It was unusually democratic for its day and a better one than the present constitution, which succeeded it in 1851. Slavery was prohibited, and the article calling upon the state to establish a system of schools was much in advance of the times, as well as beyond the immediate financial ability of the state to make effective. Believing in the right of the people to alter their fundamental law, the framers required a referendum on calling a new convention every twelfth year. The usual executive, legislative, and judicial departments were established.

In August, 1816, the first state election was held and Jonathan Jennings was chosen governor with William Hendricks the sole congressman. Soon the first state Assembly convened at Corydon and elected James Noble and Waller Taylor as members of the United States Senate. On December 11, Congress formally admitted Indiana into the Union.

From La Salle's first use of the St. Joseph-Kankakee portage in 1679 until statehood was a period of 137 years, while only 130 years have passed since statehood to this writing. Our present culture has been molded and shaped by what happened before 1816 to a greater degree than most Hoosiers realize. The expulsion of the French by the English, the American acquisition of what is now Indiana, and the reduction of the savages made possible the establishment of American life here. To a considerable degree, Indiana is what it is today because of what happened before 1816.

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III. PIONEER STATE, 1816-1865

Population Growth

Indiana entered the Union with a population of at least 75,000. According to the federal census there were 147,178 Hoosiers in 1820, 685,866 in 1840, and 1,350,428 in 1860. Between 1820 and 1860 the number of people in Indiana multiplied almost ten times, and by the latter date only five states had more inhabitants than Indiana, whereas in 1820 Indiana had ranked eighteenth among the twenty-three states.

No other period has revealed such rapid growth in population, and the development in Indiana was merely a part of the larger flow of population into the Mississippi Valley which brought fifteen states into the Union between 1792 and 1860. An unusually high birth-rate and heavy immigration were the principal factors accounting for this population growth. Indiana was settled more largely by southern stock than any other state of the Old Northwest. In the forties and fifties there was a marked increase in immigration from Germany and the British Isles, especially Ireland, as well as from the Middle Atlantic states. These elements settled largely in the northern half of Indiana because it was the least occupied area and was connected more closely with the Atlantic coast by river, lake, and canal. By 1850 there were nearly 55,000 foreign born in Indiana, over half of whom were natives of Germany and the others principally from Ireland. The Irish contributed substantially to the labor force for building canals, railroads, and factories. They strengthened the Catholic Church and the Democratic party. They also increased the number of paupers and victims of intemperance. The Germans were much slower to merge with the "natives", clinging longer to their language, amusements, and traditions. More thrifty than the Irish, they developed land, trades, and some factories. Although not too politically minded, they usually were Democrats up until the 1850's when many of them swung over to the new Republican party. The history of the brewing industry in Indiana is almost exclusively a chapter in the history of the German population. Until their coming corn whisky had no serious rival.

A very large element of the early population of central Indiana was native to southern Indiana, and likewise many of the early settlers of northern Indiana were born in central and southern Indiana. The current of settlement ran northward rather than westward. The larg-

est town in 1840 was New Albany, with a few more than 4,000 people. In 1850 Madison, New Albany, and Indianapolis, vied for first place with about 10,000 each. Ten years later the capital city of Indianapolis led with a total of close to 19,000.

The northward push of the frontier between 1815 and 1840 caused the removal of nearly all Indians from the state. The fifteen counties existing at the end of the territorial era had become the final ninety-two by 1860, with nearly all counties organized as early as 1840. The prairie lands in northern Indiana were slow in being occupied because of their wetness, the lack of tools to cultivate such soil, and the preference of settlers for timber regions.

Making a Living

The first task of most settlers was the selection of a site for a home. This choice was determined largely by access to markets, availability of drinking water, drainage, nearness to other settlers, preference for timber lands with the advantage of occupying a clearing if possible. Desire to reach markets prompted most settlers to locate along or near rivers, until land transportation was improved. Neighbors were generally wanted, but not too many. A site already cleared by fire, Indians, hunters, or earlier settlers gave one a head start in cultivating a crop.

Pioneer homes were usually log cabins, although newcomers often built half-faced camps (one side open) for temporary shelter. Building a log cabin was a co-operative enterprise involving the labor of neighbors to lift the logs in place. Similarly, fields were cleared by "log-rolling" parties in which teams contested in rolling felled trees into heaps for burning. Frontier individualism was rarely absolute; community co-operation was required for survival. In this environment Abraham Lincoln spent his formative years, from age seven to twenty-one, in Spencer County. As the early pioneers prospered, they could afford better houses of brick, stone, or lapped siding. Handsomely proportioned furniture replaced crude benches and tables and beds. This second period of house building coincided with a revival of interest in the classical architecture of ancient times. There are several fine examples in southern and central Indiana of the so-called "Greek revival" style of architecture.

Labor and thrift were exalted partly as a matter of making a virtue of an economic necessity. Hard work was the common lot of men, women, and children, with the role of women the most severe of

all. Yet the rewards of hard work were almost certain. Clearing the thick forest and planting and cultivating crops were long and tiring tasks done with only a few simple tools. Men worked hardest while planting and harvesting, but had seasons when they could hunt or make trips. Teen-age boys and girls did about everything that was done by their parents. Mother's task was never done, and "raising" a large family made an endless task of cleaning, mending, sewing, cooking, and caring for the sick and injured. In addition, the mother had a large share in tending to the garden, caring for the chickens, and instructing the children. Each year she faced the job of making jams, jellies, preserves, mincemeat, and of drying fruits and vegetables.

Agriculture was the economy of pioneer Indiana, and corn was the basic crop. It could be planted in cleared patches in which stumps were left. It was food for man and beast. Pioneers ate corn on the cob, mixed it with beans for hominy, parched it, made cornbread, hoe cake, and mush. Some drank their corn as whisky, but it was more common to turn corn into pork by feeding it to hogs. Hogs had no rival among livestock, though there were oxen, plug horses, scrub cattle, and poultry on most farms. Corn fed to hogs produced meat for the table and provided a crop that could be driven to market and sold down the river.

With land abundant, farming methods were wasteful and destructive of soil fertility. Lack of crop rotation, seed selection, adequate cultivation, proper tools, and fertilizers characterized early agriculture, but yields were high because of the richness of the soil. By the forties and fifties the good influence of county agricultural societies, farm papers, and individuals interested in better seeds, stock, methods, and tools slowly began to be felt. County and state fairs, with exhibits, premiums, and contests contributed to this improvement.

Common trades and manufactures were gristmills, sawmills, paper mills, shipyards, packing plants, tanneries, blacksmith shops, brickyards, cabinet work, distilleries, breweries, and wagon making. Whereas the first settlers made nearly everything they used, by the 1850's "store" clothing, food, and tools were in greater use, although the trades and industries producing them were almost always local.

Travel and Transportation

In territorial days there was not an improved highway within Indiana. The early settlers followed the trails made by the Indians or

animals through the wilderness. Travel on the rivers in flatboats was much easier, although affected by floods, rapids, sand bars, and fallen trees. Flatboats often continued down to the Lower Mississippi with cargoes of pork, whisky, corn, lard, etc. In 1811 the first steamboat appeared on the Ohio. By the early 1820's steamboats began pointing their noses up the Whitewater, Wabash, and White rivers. In 1831 one reached Indianapolis, but got stuck on the return voyage. By 1840 steamboats were plying up and down the Ohio with cargoes and passengers, but until at least the Civil War the flatboat remained the chief vehicle of river transportation.

The 1830's introduced the "canal age" to Indiana. Aided by a large federal land grant, a canal was started to connect the Maumee River at Fort Wayne with the Wabash. It was eventually extended via Terre Haute to Evansville. About twenty years were required to build it. The State of Indiana provided for the Whitewater Canal, running from Richmond alongside the Whitewater River to the Ohio. A third canal never finished was projected from Peru through Marion, Anderson, and Indianapolis, following the White River to a junction with the first canal to Evansville. The canals required heavy investments and constant care in the face of floods. Indiana went heavily in debt and the competition of the railroads hastened the downfall of the canal system.

An early road was the Buffalo Trace, a widened buffalo trail running from New Albany to Vincennes. In the late 1820's and early 1830's, two broad highways were laid across the state. The National Road, which Congress had projected from Wheeling to St. Louis, crossed Indiana from Richmond, through Indianapolis to Terre Haute. The state developed the Michigan Road, running from Madison northward through Shelbyville, Indianapolis, Logansport, South Bend to Michigan City. Stagecoaches carried passengers, mail, and small freight in jolting fashion, through mud and dust, over these crude highways. Logs were sometimes laid in low muddy places, making "corduroy roads." Later on planks were tried, but gravel was found more satisfactory.

Indiana's first railroad was a shortline at Shelbyville in 1834, the car pulled by a horse. A steam railroad was started northward from Madison in 1838. The rails reached Columbus in 1844 and Indianapolis in 1847, when a great celebration was held. By 1850 there were about 200 miles of railroad in Indiana and in 1860 the total had jumped to around 2,000 miles.

Improvements in transportation stimulated settlement in the northern half of the state, encouraged land booms there, and increased Indiana's connections with the East, although most of Indiana's exports still went down the Ohio. The eastern connection was important in strengthening Union sentiment before and during the Civil War. The first telegraph office in Indiana opened in Vincennes late in 1847.

Education and Religion

Although the Constitution of 1816 called for establishment of "a general system of education, ascending in a regular graduation, from township schools to a state university," "as soon as circumstances permit," no "system" had been established before 1851, when a new constitution was adopted. Public schools were on a local-option basis, and a few were excellent. Churches and individuals maintained many good private schools, but they were generally not free. The Quakers probably had the best elementary schools, while many ministers, especially Presbyterians, taught schools.

Obstacles to the development of free public schools were the tax burden, a sparse population and transportation difficulties, a lingering feeling of class and sectarian differences, and a preference by some families for schools under church or private control. Finally, the state plunged itself into so much debt for canals that it could not start free schools. Colleges and universities were numerous enough, but barely survived financially and had meager enrollment. Vincennes University was started in 1801 and incorporated by the General Assembly in 1806. Indiana University opened at Bloomington about 1825. It is the oldest state university west of the Appalachians in point of continuous service. Other colleges were founded and supported by the churches.

The Constitution of 1851 was less favorable to "a general system of education." but a more favorable public opinion, combined with greater financial strength, led to the achievement of a free public school system during the latter half of the nineteenth century.

Most of the early Hoosiers were Protestants, with the Methodists, Presbyterians, and Baptists among the earliest and most numerous. After 1840 the Christians (Disciples of Christ) increased to complete the "big four" of Protestantism. The Quakers, United Brethren, Episcopalians, Lutherans, and Unitarians were important Protestant minorities. The oldest church in Indiana is Catholic, established by the French in

Vincennes. Newcomers brought additional Catholics, and their number was greatly increased with the advent of Irish and Germans.

Many early churches organized and first met in homes, schools, and barns or groves. The itinerant system of Methodism was well suited to frontier conditions and helps explain their rapid advance. The circuit-riding preacher was also used by other denominations. Many ministers showed zeal that spurred them on amid great hardships and sacrifice to bring the gospel to isolated settlements. That not everyone responded to the program of the churches is indicated by the stress on "revivals", which were commonly supercharged with emotional appeals to better conduct. The churches were the main antagonist of frontier drinking, brawling, and gambling.

Political Parties and Issues

When Indiana Territory was organized, the Federalist party of Washington and Hamilton was about to be overthrown by the Jeffersonian Republicans. In Indiana Territory a rivalry developed between followers of Harrison and Jennings, but both factions were Jeffersonian Republicans. There was also an east-west rivalry between the Whitewater Valley and Lower Wabash settlers which was partly identified with this personal rivalry. Issues were not sharply defined, but there was a general demand for increased political democracy, support of the War of 1812, a stern Indian policy, land legislation more generous to settlers, and federal support of internal improvements.

With the national election of 1824, the Jeffersonian Republicans split into National Republicans led by J. Q. Adams and Henry Clay, and Democratic Republicans led by Andrew Jackson and others. The former encouraged federal support of internal improvements, the United States Bank, a protective tariff, a strong representative government, and liberal interpretation of the federal Constitution. The Jacksonians included men of divergent views and were less certain what they favored, but they represented a western surge toward broader democracy and elevation of the "common man" which was irresistible. Issues were often overshadowed by personalities. Indiana usually voted for Jackson or his candidates in national elections from 1824 to 1840, while keeping the National Republicans and their successor, the Whigs, in control of the state.

Under Whig leadership an unusually successful system of state banking was established and an equally unsuccessful system of internal

improvements inaugurated. The depression of the late 1830's brought financial chaos and fiscal insolvency and contributed much to Whig defeat in 1843. The Democrats then dominated state politics until the Civil War. They lowered the state debt, preached economy, established common schools, urged states' rights and the rights of individuals, and provided institutions for the insane, the blind, and the deaf and dumb. They generally ignored or evaded the emerging slavery issue, viewed temperance as a moral rather than political issue, and successfully sought the support of the Germans and Irish. After considerable agitation, a new constitution was drafted in 1850-51 under Democratic influence. It reflected Jacksonian concepts and made elections more frequent, more offices elective, substituted biennial for annual sessions of the Assembly, specified state-debt limitations, and brought Negro exclusion.

Though slavery had never been an institution in Indiana, neither had free Negroes been welcomed. Indiana had about 10,000 people of color when their coming was prohibited by the new constitution. The more militant antislavery movement was echoed by some antislavery newspapers in the state, the churches increasingly condemned slavery on moral grounds, the agitation of antislavery third parties such as Liberty and Free Soil tickets was felt, and many Whigs objected to the Mexican War as a conspiracy to extend slavery.

Then came the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854, allowing settlers in each territory to determine whether they would have slaves. This was the spark that caused a political revolution. The Republican party was born, with opposition to slavery extension and a demand for free homesteads for settlers as important planks. Indiana was sending many emigrants to the public domain who wanted not only free land, but land free of slavery. The new party encouraged temperance, and under its influence the state tried prohibition briefly. The Democrats were hard to dislodge, and not until 1860 did the Republicans carry Indiana and elect a governor and Assembly.

Threats of secession alarmed Hoosiers, and although a vast majority preferred some compromise short of war, they were equally firm in believing that preservation of the Union was an economic and political necessity. Indecision was ended when the Confederates fired on the expedition sent to re-supply Fort Sumter in April, 1861. For the moment there was a unity of purpose and feeling greatly in excess of anything the state had ever known.

The Civil War and Its Aftermath

The call to arms by President Lincoln produced more Hoosier volunteers than requested or needed, and a special session of the General Assembly provided for recruiting and weapons. Governor Morton moved in advance of public opinion and the tide of events, determined to support the Union vigorously. Initial unity and enthusiasm waned as the prolonged conflict brought accounts of suffering and heavy casualties, and recruiting became difficult. Bounties were offered, then drafting enforced. Altogether Indiana supplied nearly 200,000 men to the army and navy from a population of 1,350,500, or almost 15 per cent of its population! Over 24,400 Hoosiers lost their lives, or 12 per cent of the men engaged.

Indiana was not the scene of any decisive battles, but there were occasional raids on this side of the Ohio. The most alarming was made by General John Morgan in the summer of 1863. Jeffersonville served as an important military depot for Union forces being sent into the South.

On the home front there was abundant political strife resulting from a blending of politics and patriotism in varying degree. There was opposition to the war, including some interference with drafting by organized secret societies. Democrats charged Governor Morton with high-handed and arbitrary conduct of the war, and Morton's associates accused the Democrats of treasonable and obstructionist tactics. When the General Assembly gained a Democratic majority in 1862 and failed to give Morton the appropriations he wanted, he borrowed money from J. F. D. Lanier, New York financier, formerly of Madison, to carry on the state's war activities. Eventually the state sustained his independent action and repaid the loan.

The Civil War induced or speeded many significant changes. The common school system of the 1850's suffered irreparable losses during and after the war. Industrialization and urbanization were given an impetus, although Indiana remained primarily an agricultural state. Labor-saving machinery, such as the reaper, threshing machine, and improved plow, came into greater use during the war. The Republican Party emerged with increased prestige as the party which had "saved the Union." Negro exclusion was ended, and Negro suffrage granted. The war having produced its maimed, orphans, and widows who looked to the state for relief, the social responsibility of government was enlarged. Pioneer ways and influence waned as urbanization and industrialization helped shape a new society.

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IV. MODERN DEVELOPMENT, 1865-1945

Population Changes

Although the volume of population increase has been larger since the Civil War than preceding it, the percentage of growth has been less. The 1860 total of 1,350,000 inhabitants was nearly doubled by 1900, when the population reached 2,516,00. Between the turn of the century and 1940, the total climbed to 3,428,000, an increase of over 900,000, but less than 40 per cent, for this forty-year period. Indiana ranked twelfth in population among the states.

In 1860 more than 90 per cent of the people lived in rural areas, with only a few cities having a population in excess of 10,000. Indianapolis, the largest, had less than 19,000. A majority of the population lived in the southern half of the state. Urbanization and a northward sweep have again characterized population trends since the Civil War. By 1900 about one-third of the population was urban, and by 1940 more than half, or about 55 per cent. At this latter date, most of the larger cities and the majority of the people were in the northern half of the state. The 1940 census showed Indianapolis with a population of 387,000; Fort Wayne, 118,000; Gary, 112,000; South Bend, 101,000; and Evansville, 97,000.

Immigration has played its part in increasing the population, as it did before the Civil War. Germans and Irish continued to come, but since about 1880 there has also been a marked increase in the arrival of Italians, Greeks, Hungarians, Poles, and other southern and south-eastern Europeans. A Belgian colony has grown up in Mishawaka. Generally these people settled in the emerging industrial areas of the northern third of the state, and the greatest immigration occurred between 1880 and World War I. At the same time and during that war, there was an increase in the immigration of Negroes to Indiana.

Foreign immigration slackened in the 1920's and virtually ceased during the depression of the 1930's. World War II caused a considerable movement of population. The northward trek of Southerners, both black and white, was accelerated by the demands of defense industries, and the war gave further impetus to urbanization within the state.

Agriculture Mechanized

Probably during no decade in our history did Hoosier farmers make so much economic advance as in the "glorious 1850's." Revolutionary

changes in industry since the Civil War have been accompanied by sweeping and significant changes in the methods of agriculture, yet the crops and stock remain very much the same. Corn and hogs have been the principal source of farm income since the advent of American settlers. As Logan Esarey put it in *The Indiana Home*: "We may sing the praise of all the heroes of Indiana from La Salle or George Rogers Clark to the present, but the prosperity of our state through the century has depended on Mr. Hog. In fat years and lean years . . . he has come up with his part, even though he does grunt about it considerably."

County agricultural societies and farm papers heralded the changes in farming methods even before the Civil War. They encouraged and promoted county fairs, selection of better seed, breeding of improved stock, rotation of crops, more use of both natural and commercial fertilizers, protection against erosion, better roads to reach markets, free elementary education, participation of farm organization in politics, etc. The first state fair was held at Indianapolis in 1852. The opening of Purdue University in 1874 provided a place where agricultural improvements might be tested. In recent decades farmers have become much more willing to accept new methods recommended by Purdue.

Steadily improved farm implements have decreased some of the exhausting hand labor and made farming more of a mechanized business. Better plows, reapers, and combines, cornpickers, tractors, milking machines, electric power, and improved stock and seed have all contributed to increase agricultural production. Rural housing has improved slowly as modern city conveniences were made available to farmers. In recent years tomatoes have become a crop of great importance, and egg and poultry production is now significantly large, especially in northern Indiana.

Although secondary to industry as a source of livelihood, farming is still of great economic and social significance. Indiana's urban population is distributed among many relatively small cities, and many of those inhabitants are close enough by birth or proximity to farms to cherish rural and agrarian traditions. The agricultural atmosphere has by no means disappeared.

Manufacturing and Mining

The evolution of manufacturing has been the principal factor changing the economic scene since the Civil War. This growth, in Indiana as in the United States generally, has been characterized by the emer-

gence of the giant corporation, with mass production made possible by division of labor into small tasks which are easily learned and rapidly done. The increased production of goods at lower cost has made possible wider distribution and a consequent rise in our general standard of living.

In 1860 the total value of manufactured products was almost \$43,000,000, with approximately 21,300 wage earners employed. The leading products in order of their importance were: flour, lumber, meats, liquor, machinery, boots and shoes, carriages and wagons, furniture, and agricultural implements. The total value of the first three was greater than that of the remainder combined. Manufacturing was concentrated chiefly in counties bordering on the National Road or along the Ohio River.

By 1900 the total value of manufactured goods had multiplied to nine times that of 1860, and the number of laborers had increased over seven times. Output per worker had greatly increased through use of more machinery and division of labor. The leading manufactured products were: meats, flour, liquor, lumber, iron and steel, railway-car repairs, machinery, carriages and wagons, glass, and agricultural implements. Northern Indiana counties were rapidly becoming industrialized.

By 1930 the value of manufactured products had jumped to more than two and one-half billion dollars, or six to seven times that of 1900, while the number of laborers so engaged had but slightly more than doubled, reaching 314,698. After the depression years, these figures were again reached in 1940 and far surpassed during World War II. In addition to machinery, automatic power was increasing production without so many hands, but new industries were developing constantly and offering new opportunities for labor. The leading product of 1930 reflect the shift to the metal industries: iron and steel, automobiles, machinery, electrical machinery, railway-car repairs, meats, motor vehicle parts, furniture, pig iron and coke. The phenomenal rise of Gary, founded in 1906, helped center and enlarge manufacturing activity in the Calumet region.

Growth of the Studebaker Corporation serves as a vivid example. In 1852 the Studebaker blacksmith shop at South Bend began making wagons. It was then only one of hundreds of blacksmith shops, and in 1860 was valued at \$10,000. By 1900 there were 2,500 employees engaged in making wagons and carriages that brought sales of nearly

\$4,000,000. In 1940 there were nearly 8,000 employees, with total sales of over \$84,000,000, chiefly of automobiles and trucks. The corporation's figures for 1945, the last year of World War II, revealed a peak employment of 23,600 and sales of nearly \$213,000,000.

Access to lake and railroad transportation, a centralized geographical location, and relative safety from air bombing made Indiana a booming center of industrial output during World War II, which in turn gave extra stimulus to industrialization. Indiana ranks ninth in industrial production among the states.

Though never a leading mining state, Indiana has produced considerable coal, stone, gas, and oil. Coal mining is scattered in the southwestern part of the state, and the soft coal is consumed largely within the state. Building stone is quarried principally in Monroe, Lawrence, Owen, and Washington counties, but is used all over the United States, especially for public buildings. The natural-gas boom came to Indiana in the 1880's, causing a number of towns to spring up over night and stimulating such industries as glass making in Muncie, but most wells were of limited duration. With gas came a limited production of oil. Recent years have seen a renewed activity in drilling for oil.

The status of labor has changed with this development of industry and mining. A few trade or craft unions existed in 1865. The decade of the 1870's awakened class consciousness. The Knights of Labor, a national society, became strong in Indiana in the late seventies, but declined a decade later as the American Federation of Labor grew. Probably the first state federation of labor was formed in Indiana in 1885 at a meeting of trade union delegates. In 1893 the right of workers to join unions was recognized and protected by law, and four years later a state labor commission was created to investigate labor disputes. Most industrial workers were ineligible for membership in the craft unions of the state federation, however, but they were rapidly organized by the industrial unions that have flourished since 1930. One of the first advocates of industrial unionism was Eugene V. Debs, a Hoosier. The unions have proved helpful in securing improved working conditions, safety inspections, fewer working hours, and higher wages. Despite some lagging, labor has shared in the advancing standard of living.

Transportation Development

Improvement in transportation has accompanied the development of industry and mining and even encouraged it. Railroad lines that totaled

about 2,000 miles in 1860 have spread out like a spider web until there are 6,800 miles of rails in the state today. Her location between the Great Lakes and the Ohio River gives Indiana the benefit of the main continental routes from East to West. Roads have replaced the rivers and canals as highways, and trucks and busses have taken the place of flatboats and steamships. Today Indiana has over 76,000 miles of roads of all kinds. Yet the Ohio River was a determining factor in the ability of Evansville to manufacture and deliver small fighting craft during the recent war. Interurbans enjoyed great popularity during the first thirty years of this century, before bowing out to competition from trucks, busses, and passenger cars.

The first automobile, or "horseless carriage," in the United States was invented and tried out in Indiana. It was built by Elwood Haynes at Kokomo in 1894. The same year Charles Black made an automobile in Indianapolis. For a time it appeared as if Indiana would take the lead in manufacturing motor cars, but now the state is more engrossed in making parts for them. The social effects of the automobile era have been tremendous. With almost every family owning its own method of transportation, provincial thinking has been broadened by enlarged horizons, the accidental-death rate has soared and crime has become motorized, rural isolation has decreased, suburban city living has increased, the pace of living has been intensified.

Along with transportation, the improvement in the telegraph and the invention of the telephone and radio have enlarged the world in which each individual lives. The ease of instantaneous communication and the shrinkage of distance inevitably must make all Hoosiers members of the world community.

Modern Education and Churches

Though the Civil War disrupted and retarded the common school advance, the battle for favorable public opinion had already been won. Since 1865 common school sessions have been lengthened, elementary education has been made compulsory, teachers have become better trained and better taught, new subjects have been added to the curriculum and old ones revamped, school "activities" have greatly increased, more suitable buildings have been erected, and the amount of administrative control and supervision has at least equaled the minimum necessary. With consolidated schools in most rural areas, the schools have become more standardized and departmentalized.

After the Civil War the free public high school gradually replaced academies and private schools and won a dominant position in the field of secondary education. Its greatest growth has been in the present century, with the common schools serving as "feeders."

The state university and most of the colleges founded by church denominations were established before the Civil War. Indiana State Teachers College was started at Terre Haute in 1870 to prepare elementary teachers, and Ball State Teachers College was opened at Muncie for the same purpose in 1917. Purdue University was organized in 1874 as a result of a federal land grant act to promote education in agriculture and industry. A few more church colleges were founded. During the last several decades, the colleges and universities have generally added teacher training to their other educational programs. College enrollment, fed by high-school graduates, increased notably after the turn of the century, and after each of the World Wars. In the expanding educational program research has been given greater recognition. Adult education has received attention in extension courses, library expansion, and club work.

In literary production, Indiana has achieved distinction and a reputation. From Edward Eggleston through James Whitcomb Riley, Charles Major, and Lew Wallace to Gene Stratton Porter, Meredith Nicholson, George Ade, Booth Tarkington, and Theodore Dreiser, Indiana authors have held their own with those of any other state. In history, John B. Dillion, Jacob P. Dunn, Charles A. Beard, Albert J. Beveridge, John Clarke Ridpath, Logan Esarey, Claude Bowers, and others have made important contributions.

The religious composition of the population has not changed materially since the 1850's. The Protestant denominations in the lead are Methodist, Christian, Baptist, and Lutheran. Sunday Schools have become established institutions. Roman Catholics are more numerous than any one Protestant denomination, and account for about 23 per cent of the total church membership in Indiana. Greek Catholics and Hebrew Congregations have appeared as the result of recent European immigration. United Brethren, Dunkers, Mennonites, and Friends form important minorities. The percentage of church membership to total population stood at 42 per cent in 1936.

In National Politics and World Affairs

Because of the relatively equal strength of the two major political parties in Indiana, the state's electoral vote has frequently been sought by the nomination of vice-presidents from Indiana or the promise of cabinet secretaryships to Indianans. "As Indiana goes, so goes the nation" is a fairly safe forecast, for since 1850 the state has cast its electoral vote for the winning presidential candidate every time except in 1876 (where the outcome was doubted), 1916, 1940 (cast for Wendell Willkie, a native son), and 1944. Colfax, Hendricks, Fairbanks, and Marshall have been vice-presidents from this state, and Benjamin Harrison was living in Indiana when elected president. Many Hoosiers have served in other high federal posts.

From the Civil War until the eve of World War I, Indiana and the nation normally voted Republican in national elections, but within the state Democrats were elected governor almost as frequently as Republicans. State issues and personalities were not always dominated by national considerations. As the party which had "saved the Union," the Republicans remained in power nationally until 1885. Meanwhile, the rapid growth of the trans-Mississippi West, emerging industrialization, and two depressions turned attention from reconstruction of the South to questions of money and tariffs, regulation of railroads and trusts, labor and management strife, and allied issues. Demand for reform stimulated the birth of new political parties—Greenback, Populist, Prohibition, Socialist, Progressive—which found adherents in Indiana. Although the state made few general concessions to such groups, various demands of theirs became effective through legislation by the major parties.

In national affairs, the years from 1901 to 1917, commonly called the Progressive Era, brought increased governmental regulation of economic life. Certain political changes, such as the Constitutional amendments allowing the direct election of United States Senators and the levying of income taxes, brought the government closer to the people. The Socialist Party had its birth in Indianapolis in 1901 through the initiative of Eugene V. Debs, and he was the party's candidate for president four times. Yet the whole progressive movement induced fewer changes in the state than in the nation.

World War I was at first viewed as another European conflict, and both the German and Irish elements in Indiana objected to taking the side of Great Britain. By 1917, however, Hoosier public opinion was

hostile to Germany and ready to support war against her. Indiana furnished 118,000 men and women to the armed forces and suffered the loss of 3,354, a much smaller sacrifice than the Civil War demanded.

From 1917 until 1933 Indiana was in the hands of Republican governors. During this period the state's road building program was started, and the tax laws were revised. In common with a number of other states, Indiana suffered from a revival of the Ku Klux Klan in the middle 1920's, but this secret nativistic movement was smashed by courageous newspapers that aroused public opinion against its intolerance and threat of political pressure. A Democratic administration was inaugurated in 1933, in the midst of general economic depression. Immediate legislation reorganized all state departments, centralizing power in the hands of the governor. This act was repealed in 1941, and a new means of administering the departments provided. The state Supreme Court invalidated the revision, with the result that most departments and commissions reverted to their pre-1933 status. Following the pattern of the national government, responsibilities of state government were enlarged by the creation of a department of public welfare in 1936. The tax base was broadened by enactment of a state income tax law. In 1945 a Republican governor took office.

This switching from one major party to the other is typical of the Indiana political scene. Both parties commonly chart "safe and sane" policies which are more conservative than those of the national government in Washington. The merit system for administrative personnel, including permanent tenure, has not made much advance, and the "spoils system" of awarding jobs to faithful party supporters has its sincere advocates.

Because the first World War was still a fresh memory and isolationism an attractive policy in the 1930's, Indiana watched the rise of dictatorships in Europe without serious apprehension until Nazi Germany struck its neighbors. Even then the belief was widely held that ideas and values cherished here were not threatened. There was very little pro-German sympathy, however. Once more German aims and methods infuriated Americans, and when the Japanese struck at Hawaii, Indiana was ready to plunge into war again. It furnished about 340,000 men and women to the armed forces, of whom almost 10,000 gave their lives. In addition, Hoosiers lent to the federal government nearly half a billion dollars, and state industries turned to war production with speed and enlarged capacity.

With the return of peace, greater participation by the United States in world affairs seems certain. Indiana public opinion, like that of the nation, has not yet crystallized in support of the particular form that participation should take.

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